Sentential Complementation in Standard English

Asst. Prof. Dr. Muslih Shwaysh Ahmed
University of Anbar
College of Education for Humanities

Hadeel Sinjar Hammad
M.A Student
Dept. of English

Abstract

The present study aims at examining the internal structure and external distribution of sentential complements in Standard English by shedding light on the syntax and semantics of sentential complementation. The present study focuses its attention on the sentential complements that are realized by a whole clause. These complements are determined by the verb that used in the main clause. Thus, the verb is regarded as the head that subcategorizes for certain clause to be its complement. Sentential complementation in SE has certain features in both its internal structure and external distribution. For instance, the sentential complementation that is introduced by a 'that- clause' contains a subject that should be in the nominative case. As regards external distribution, some sentential complements cannot be preceded by a preposition. The present study treats the sentential complementation in Standard English depending on the model adopted by Quirk and his followers.

الخلاصة

تهدف الدراسة الحالية إلى تقصي التركيب الداخلي والتوزيع الخارجي لتكملة الجمل في اللغة الانكليزية الفصحى وذلك عن طريق تسليط الضوء على نحو ودلالة هذه التكملة. إن هذه الدراسة تركز بالشكل الأساس على التكملات التي تكون على شكل عبارة كاملة والتي يمكن اختيارها بواسطة الفعل الواقع في الجملة الرئيسية. لهذا يمكن القول بأن الفعل هو العامل الرئيس الذي يحدد نوع التكملة الواقعة في الجملة. تمتلك تكملة الجمل في اللغة الانكليزية الفصحى خصائص معينة تخص كلاً من تركيبها الداخلي وتوزيعها الخارجي. فعلى سبيل المثال، تشترط التكملة الانكليزية التي تحتوي على المكمّل 'أنَّ' أن يكون المسند إليه الواقع بعدها في حالة الرفع. أما بالنسبة للتوزيع الخارجي، فهناك بعض التكملات التي لايمكن أن تسبق بحرف جر.إن هذه الدراسة تتبع النموذج المتبني بواسطة النحوي 'كورك' في دراسة تكملة الجمل في اللغة الانكليزية الفصحى.

Introduction

The term ‘complement’ isborrowed from Latin ‘com-’ means ‘intensive’plus ‘plere’ which means ‘full’. ‘complere’“to fill up or fulfillment” and ‘ment’ means “result of or instrument of the verb”. The whole construction means that the element which makes completion of meaning or perfection (Harley, 2003: 189). In fact linguists differ in defining the term sentential complementation (or complement clause as many grammarians prefer to call) because of adopting different approaches.

Dixon's approach to complementation is largely based on semantic grounds. For him “which complement clause a given verb may accept is determined by the meaning of the complement clauses” (Dixon, 1992:207 cited in Arseneau, 2009: 20).

Cristofara (2003:95) defines complement clauses as “clauses functioning as an argument of main predicate”. He adds,“arguments are necessary specification of predicates”.

McCaway (1988 cited in Scheibman, 2002:32) defines complement clause as ‘‘ a predicate that fulfills a major syntactic role in matrix sentence’’ (subject, object, etc.).

Complement clauses are traditionally called ‘noun clauses’ or nominal clauses because they can occur in the positions occupied by ordinary noun phrases. The contemporary term “complement clause” is used to reflect the relationship between the clauses that function as a complementation and the verb of the main clause (Miller, 2002: 63).

In transformational generative grammar, the complement clauses are expressed by phrase structure rules as having the same distributional patternsof noun phrases. Thus , transformationalists drive complement clauses form the noun phrases (NP→S) (Bussman, 1996: S.V).

Although complement is a term used by different approaches, the basic idea of complement is that it is a construction selected by the head and can be said to complete the meaning of the structure (see Quirk et al., 1985:65 , Leech 2006:22 , Borjars and Burridge, 2010: 71). For example:

1) I know [that he will do it].
2) I want [to go with you].
3) I don’t know [where he lives].

In the examples above, the constructions ‘I know’,‘ I want’, and ‘I don’t know’, are syntactically and semantically incomplete. The heads are transitive verbs requiring another construction to complete the meaning of the whole sentence. Therefore, the clauses following these heads are obligatory constructions that function as sentential complementation.

2. English Sentence Patterns:

The basic sentence patterns can be classified into seven types. These types can be applied to any English sentence whether it is main or subordinate (dependent). The following patterns are cited from (Quirk et al., 1985: 53 and Leech, 2006: 120):

1. SV John has died.
2. SVO He speaks English.
3. SVC He became a famous person.
4. SVA Jane was in the library.
5. SVOO She gave me a nice dress.
6. SVOC I consider this book useful.
7. SVOA He placed the book on the shelf.

3. Verb Complementation:

The term verb complementation refers to “the description of the complement-taking properties of verbs, i.e. which complements they take and how these complements are realized” (Aarts, 2001: 272). Thus, verbs are classified according to what complements they select. The following classes are used to differentiate between types of the verb (cited from Kim and Sells, 2007: 67):

1. Intransitive verb: this type of a verb does not permit any kind of complement. For example:

4) Mary<u>sneezed.</u>

2. Linking verbs (copular verbs): they are verbs that are "followed by a subject predicative like a noun, adjective, or prepositional phrase [or an adverbial of place]" (Biber et al., 1999: 381). For example:

5) John is a teacher. (copular 'be '+ NP)
6) It seems good. (copular 'seem' + Adj)

7) They are in the garden. (copular 'be' + Prep. Ph)

3. Transitive verbs: in this type, verbs usually select their complement as a direct object. For example:

8) Mary typed many letters [Od].

4. Ditransitive verbs: verbs of this type have two complements, the first functions as indirect object and the second functions as a direct object. For example:

9.a) They taught the new student [Oi] English grammar [Od].
9.b). They taught English grammar [Od] to the new students.
(Prep.Ph)

5. Complex transitive verbs: they are those verbs that select two complements one functioning as a direct object and the other functioning as an object complement or an adverbial. For example:

10) We called her [Od] an angel [Co].
11) They led us [Od] to the wrong path [Adv.].

All the complementations above that are selected by their verbs consist of a single word or phrase. There are other types of complementations that can be realized by a whole clause. These types will be explained in section 7.

4. Subordinate clauses:

Brown and Miller (1980:34) define subordinate clauses as "sentences which are themselves constituents of other sentences". They are usually dependent clauses that are embedded within a larger clause (main or superordinate clause). The embedded clause usually differs from the main one in the internal structure (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005: 25). For example:

12) I know [that he is clever] [St.Comp].
13) [Calling the Smiths] [S] was a great mistake.

In (12) the subordinate clause between the brackets differs from the main clause in containing the element 'that' but if it is omitted it will resemble the main clause 'he is clever'. In (13) the subordinate clause differs from the main one (we called the Smiths) in that its subject is missing and the verb has a different form.

14) Kim said [that Sandy left] [St.Comp].

15) Dana preferred [for Pat to get the job] [St.Comp].
(De marrneff and Manning, 2011: 4).

There are other subordinators that introduce a subordinate clause function as adverbials like (since, although, when, before, and others). Semantically, the subordinate clauses, especially the adverbials, present information as if it is presupposed as given rather than new (Quirk et al., 1985: 919). The following are illustrative examples:

16) [Since she finished her examinations], she returned to home.
17) [Although he did his best], he failed.

In the above examples, the clauses between brackets are introduced by the elements 'since and although' which introduce adverbial subordinate clauses. In the two subordinate clauses above, the hearer is assumed to already have information regarding the 'finishing examination' and 'doing best'.

4.1. Functional Classifications of Subordinate Clause:

The subordinate clauses have potential functions that can be distinguished as follows (cited from Quirk et al., 1985: 1047; Leech and Svartvik, 1994: 251):

4.1.1. Nominal clauses.
4.1.2. Relative clauses.
4.1.3. Adverbial clauses.
4.1.4. Comparative clause.
4.1.5. Comment clauses.

4.1.1. Nominal Clauses:

Leech (2006:68) defines nominal clause as " a subordinate clause which has a function in the sentence similar to that of a noun phrase". Thus, they can act as subject, object, complement, appositive, or prepositional complement. Semantically, nominal clauses are abstract, that is, they refer to events, dates, facts, and ideas rather than to 'perceptible objects'. One exception is that nominal relative clause may refer to perceptible objects that may include persons (Quirk et al.,1985: 1047). Nominal clauses fall into several categories that can be distinguished as nominal that clause, wh-nominal clause, wh-interrogative

clause, exclamative, to-infinitive, and -ing clause (see Leech and Svartvik, 1994: 311; Downing and Locke,2006: 14).

a. Nominal that-clauses:

18) No one can say [that these books are not interesting].

The example above contains a subordinate clause that has the form of a nominal that-clause and functions as a direct object.

b. Wh-nominal Clause (Nominal Relative Clause):

A Nominal relative clause is usually introduced by a Wh-element:

19) I want to see [whoever deals with complaints][Od].
(Leech and Svartvik, 1994: 313).

20) The house, [which stands on the hill], is empty.
appositive (Tulloch, 1990: 5).

Verbs like (tell, teach, give, and show) can introduce a nominal relative clause complement which represents factual information (Downing and Locke, 2006: 106). For example:

21) He told me [what I already knew][Od]

C. Wh- Interrogative Clause:

The subordinate wh-interrogative clauses are also introduced by wh-interrogative elements.

22) [Where he will travel] does not concern me.

23) He didn't say [how he did it].

The subordinate wh-interrogative clauses and wh-questions have a semantic similarity in that, both of them leave a gap of untold information represented by the wh-element (ibid). Considerthe following examples:

24) Do you know [where will he travel?]. (wh-question)

25) I don't know [where he will travel]. (wh-interrogative clause)

Both (24) and (25) above present unknown information concerning the place of travelling which is represented by the wh-element 'where'. Unlike those two clauses, the subordinate 'that-clause' presents known information. For example:

26) I know [that he will travel to Egypt]. (nominal that-clause)

D. Exclamative Clause:
27) I remember [what a nice party we had spent].
28) She was astonished [how fast he can drive].

E. To- Infinitive Clause:
29) [To be a good teacher] is more difficult than people think.
30) [For Janet to go to the college] [S] would be a good idea.

(Aarts, 2001: 74)

31) He wants [to leave].
F –ing Clause:
32) Her hoppy is [reading stories].

4.1.2 Relative Clause:

A relative clause is one function of subordinate clause that can be embedded in the noun phrase so as to modify it. The embedding of the relative clause occurs in stages as Greenbaum and Nelson (2002: 490) clarify in the examples below:

33) He had a nasty gash[which needed medical attention].
The relative clause is embedded in the main one which might read:

33.a) The gash needed medical attention. (main clause)
33.b) He had $\underline{\text{a nasty gash}}_{NP}$.$\underline{\text{The gash}}_{NP}$ needed medical attention.

In (33.b) the two sentences share the same head of the noun phrases which is 'gash' that refers to the same thing; therefore, the next stage substitutes the second NP with a suitable relative pronoun:

33) He had a nasty gash[which needed medical attention].
NP

The relative pronoun refers back to the head of the nominal group which is called the 'antecedent'. Relative clauses are of two types: restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. Restrictive relative clause provides essential information and restricts the number of possible referents for the noun phrase so as to help the reader or the hearer pick the correct referent. Whereas a non-restrictive relative clause merely adds information and does not restrict the reference of the NP (Borjars and

Burridge, 2010: 197). The following are syntactic and semantic features of restrictive relative clause:

- Syntactically, the restrictive relative clause is embedded within the nominal group structure and it is not separated by commas.
- Semantically, the restrictive relative clause is an 'integral part of the meaning of the whole referent (nominal group). It helps the reader or the hearer to pick out the specific referent from other possible ones (Downing and Locke, 2006: 450). For example:

34) The man [who is sitting in the corner] is my father.

The non-restrictive relative clause has also syntactic and semantic functions.It is not embedded in the structure of the nominal group. It is 'parenthetical' which has certain 'semantic independence' that makes it anon-integral part of the meaning of the noun phrase. It does not specify one referent from other possible referents because the referent is already restricted and the clause is complete. Bing already defined , the referent needs not to be specified by essential information provided by the restrictive relative clause; therefore, the non-restrictive relative clause provides additional information that may explain or elaborate on the content of the previous clause (ibid:451). For example:

35) Mary, [who was here yesterday], is getting married next week.

There is a sub-type of relative clause which belongs to the non-restrictive type called 'sentential relative clause'. It can be defined as ''a relative clause that refers back to the whole of the preceding clause or sentence'' (Leech, 2006: 105). Thus, in sentential relative clause, the antecedent (referent) is not a noun phrase, but a whole clause, sentence, or even a series of sentences. Consider the following examples cited from Quirk et al., (1985:1118):

36) Things then improved, which surprises me.
37) Collin married my sister and I married his brother, whichmakes Collin and me double in-laws.

4.1.3 Adverbial Clause:

Leech (2006: 9) defines an adverbial clause as ''a clause that functions as an adverbial in the main clause or sentence it belongs to''. Adverbial clauses can modify the rest of the main clause by adding

additional information by means of place, time, condition, ,and so on. Two things characterize adverbial clauses. Firstly, they are optional i.e. they can be omitted without affecting the grammaticality of the sentence. Secondly, the element following it answers questions like why, when, how often, or where but not what or who (Greenbaum and Nelson, 2002: 19). The following are the main types of adverbial clauses:

4.1.3.1 Clauses Of Time:

These clauses are introduced by subordinators of time such as after, before, as, as soon as, immediately, since, while, and others. Subordinators like 'the minute', and 'the moment' can also introduce the time clauses. For example:

38) I had my lunch as soon as he arrived.

4.1.3.2. Clauses of Place:

Adverbial clauses of place are introduced by subordinators like where or wherever. 'Where' is specific, whereas 'wherever' is not. Adverbial clauses of place may have two identifications: position and direction (Quirk et al., 1985: 1087). For example:

39) We stopped where the street become crowded. (specific place)
40) We went wherever we could find a good job. (any place)

In (39) above, the adverbial clause indicates position whereas in (40), the adverbial clause indicates direction.

4.1.3.3 Clauses of Condition:

Conditional clauses mostly begin with the subordinators 'if and unless'. 'Unless' expresses a negative meaning. Other conditional subordinators are 'so long as', 'as long as', 'provided that', and 'on condition that' (Leech, 2006:25).

Quirk et al. state that the main use of conditional clauses is to express a 'direct condition' which means ''the truth of the proposition in the matrix clause is a consequence of the fulfillment of the condition in the conditional clause'' (1985:1088). For example:

41) [If he comes], I will go with him.

In the above sentence, the speaker intends the hearer to realize that the truth of the prediction 'I will go with him' depends on the fulfilment of

the condition of 'his coming'. The hearer can also infer the following sentence:

42) [If he does not come], I will not go with him.

In direct conditions, the if-clause introduces an adverbial clause which is adjunct whereas in indirect conditions, if-clause represents a style disjunct (ibid: see 1070, 1089). For example:

43) Her sister and I are just good friends, [<u>if you understand me</u>].
Indirect condition (disjuncts)

4.1.4. Comparative Clauses:

Comparative clauses can express equality and inequality. The equality is usually marked by the adverb 'as' and the inequality is marked by 'than'. It must be borne in mind that equality here is not a matter of exact equality, that is, the constructions compared are at least equal but not identical (Huddleson and Pullum, 2005: 199). For example:

44) Joseph became [as famous as Thelma became].
45) Brenda spent more money [than Bernies spent].
(Baker, 1995: 399).

In (44) above, the subordinate clause is introduced by 'as' that expresses equality whereas in (45), the subordinate clause is introduced by than which gives the meaning of inequality.

Comparative clauses can convey a non-factual meaning if they occur with non-assertive words such as 'any and ever'. Consider the following example cited from Downing and Locke (2006: 24).

46) This coffee is better [than any I have <u>ever</u> tasted].

4.1.5. Comment Clauses (CCs):

Leech and Svartvik (1994: 254) define comment clauses as clauses which ''comment on the truth of the sentence, the manner of saying it, or the attitude of the speaker''. They state that comment clauses function as adverbials and they are not very much related to the main clause to which they belong. Quirk et al., (1985: 1112-13) classify comment clauses as either content disjuncts or style disjuncts. For example:

47) You can cook well, I believe.

5. Finite And Non-Finite Clauses:

5.1 Finite Clauses:

The finiteness or non-finiteness of the clauses depends on the form of the verb selected. Finite verbs and; therefore, finite clauses express either tense or modality' which their function is relating the verb to the speech event. Tense can be carried not only by the lexical verb but also by the finite operators (like is, are, am, does ...etc.). Modality is marked by modal verbs which also function as finite operators. Thus if one wants to express tense or modality, together with number and person, a finite form of the verb should be selected (Downing and Locke, 2006: 13). Huddleston and Pullum (2005: 36) state that the relation between clause finiteness and verb inflections can fall into the following criteria:

- If the verb is a primary form, the clause is finite.
- If the verb is a gerund participle (ending in ing) or a past participle the clause is non-finite.
- If the verb is a plain form (base form but not in present tense), the clause may be finite or non-finite. It is finite if it is imperative or subjunctive. It is non-finite if it is infinitival. For example:

48) I think [that he will stay with us]. (finite clause)

The subordinate clause above is a finite clause because it expresses modality which is marked by the modal 'will'.This finite clause functions as sentential complementation which is introduced by the complementizer 'that'.

49) I don't know [if it is good or bad]. (finite clause)

The subordinate clause in (49) above is finite because it expresses tense which is marked by the operator 'is'. This clause also functions as sentential complementation. The complementizer whether can introduce finite and non-finite clauses. For example:

50) She does not know [whether he will come to her party].
51) I don't know [whether to laugh or cry at his story].

The following sentence is a finite one, which contains two subordinate clauses that are finite too. It can be illustrated by the diagram below:

52) Tim thought {that Kate believed [that Greg is a liar]}.

St.

Mt.Cl

Subord.Cl (1)

Subord.Cl (2)

(Aarts, 2001: 54).

In the above sentence, the matrix clause is a main clause to a subordinate clause (1). The Subordinate clause (1), in turn is a main clause to the subordinate clause (2). Matrix clauses are not subordinate to anything else. The subordinate clause (1) is a finite clause functions as sentential complementation (complement clause) to the whole sentence. The subordinate clause (2) is also a finite clause that functions as complement clause to the subordinate clause (1).

5.2. Non- Finite Clauses:

A non-finite clause can be defined as a ‘‘clause which has a non-finite verb phrase’’. It can be subdivided into three types: infinitive clauses, -ing clauses, and –ed clauses (Leech, 2006:71).For example:

a. Infinitive clause with to:

53) He wants [to go to the theatre].

b. Infinitive without to:

54) We can make the adults [perform the way the real kids perform].

c. –ing clause:

55) [Seeing the crowed], he stopped his car.

d. –ed clause:

56) [Dressed in home clothes], he went to his relatives.

The bare infinitive (infinitive without to) clauses do not contain complementizers, and their distribution is somehow restricted. One, in fact, does not come across them very often except in a certain kind of a clause called a ‘psedo-cleft’ clause. For example:

57) What we will do is [postpone the exam].

The bare infinitive clause cannot have an auxiliary verb as stated in (57) above. Unlike this clause, the to-infinitive clause can contain an

auxiliary verb but not a modal one since the modal auxiliary is usually finite. Another difference between bare infinitive and to-infinitive clauses is that, if the latter contains a subject, it should be preceded by a complementizer usually (for) (Borjars and Burridge, 2010: 203-4). Consider the following examples:

58) It is good [to be fully prepared for the following exam].

59) It was interesting [for John to watch the match].

The example (58) above contains a non-finite clause which is a to-infinitive clause without subject. In (59), the non-finite clause is introduced by the complementizer (for) and it contains the subject (John).

The –ing clause can have syntactic functions and they never have complementizers. The –ing clauses are not like the progressive participle (be+ing) though their form is identical. This is because their distribution does not seem to be the same. There are verbs which represent the perfect tense such as have' that never have the progressive aspect. there are also certain verbs which cannot occur in progressive aspect because, semantically, the activity expressed by them cannot be seen as something which is in progress (ibid:207-8). The following are illustrative examples:

60) I resent [having been asked to support certain members].
(-ing participle clause)

61) * I was having been asked to support certain members.
(-ing progressive aspect)

62) [Knowing that], he quickly ran away.(-ing participle clause)

63)* I was knowing that it is true. (-ing progressive aspect)

Another kind of a non-finite participle clause is that which ends in [-ed] or [-en]. They can have complemetizers. For example:

64) [Kidnapped last night], he is in museum right now.

As it is mentioned earlier, a non-finite clause fails to express tense, so the sentence (64) above, is neither past nor present nor future (Geldren, 2010: 151).

6. Complementizers Introducing Sentential Complementation:

A complementizer is a term that can be used to ''describe the kind of word which is used to introduce complement clauses'' (Radford,2004:44). Complementizers consist of a set of words that includes (that, for,

whether and if, and wh-element). (That and for) introduce declarative clauses, (if and whether) introduce interrogative clauses, and wh-element can introduce both declarative and interrogative clauses. Therefore, the complementizers can be regarded as heads that determine the property of the structure they introduce. Thus, verbs select their complement and complementizers select the type of structure they subcategorize for (Newson et al., 2006: 396). For example:

65) Kim said [that sandy left]. (that-clause)
66) Dana preferred [for pat to get the job]. (to-infintive clause)
(Kallymeyer et al., 2007:3).

Notice that the examples above contain the complementizers (that and for) which introduce sentential complementation (complement clause as many grammarians call it). In (65), the sentential complementation is a declarative finite clause. The sentence (66) above contains a declarative clause but it is a non-finite one. Consider the following example:

67) He asked [if I will go with him].
68) She wondered [whether he studied hard].

The above examples contain the complementizers (if and whether) which introduce interrogative finite clauses. The following are illustrative examples that illustrate the wh-complementizers:

69) David wondered [who yawned].
70) David couldn’t believe [how big the house was].
(Cully, 1994 cited in Dalrymple, 2001: 24).

Dalrymple (ibid) states that in addition to declarative an interrogative clauses, some complementizers can introduce exclamative sentential complementation as in (70) above.
Considering all the examples mentioned, one could notice that complementizers serve certain grammatical functions. First, they indicate whether the sentential complementation is finite or non-finite. Second, they serve to mark the force of the clause; whether it is declarative, interrogative, or exclamative (Radford, 2004: 45).

Complementizers can also have interesting semantic properties in that , they indicate the truth-conditional status of sentential complementation they introduce. To state that, it is possible to say that statements have truth-value, i.e. they are either true or false. They are

true if they describe the real world correctly, and they are false if they don't. Thus, clauses that are introduced by (that) have a truth-value that is usually true. Whereas, the interrogative clauses have unknown values and usually represent a kind of question. Thus :

Syntax	Semantic
That [-S] Cp	S is true.
Whether [-S] Cp	The truth-value of S is unknown.

(Harley, 2003:189-190).

7. Types of Sentential Complementation:

All sentential complementations are determined by the verb. The verb subcategorizes for certain type of complement and selects it to be its complement. Many verbs require more than one type of complementation. The following sections treat the subordinate clauses that function as sentential complementation which fall into four types: copular, monotransitive, ditrasitive, and complex transitive complementation.

7.1 Copular complementation:

Copular verbs usually '' predict meaning of being something describing or identifying the subject referent'' (Dowing and Locke, 2006: 65). They can take copular complements that are in forms of finite and non finite clauses:

A. Complementation by finite clauses:

71)The point is [that you have to talk to your boss].
72) April is [when the lilacs bloom].
(Quirk et al., 1985: 1058).

B. Complementation by Non-Finite Clauses:

73) <u>The good idea </u>is [to go with us tomorrow].
74) <u>Her hoppy</u> is [reading stories].

7.2 Monotransitive Complementation:

A. Complementaion by Finite Clauses:

Monotransitive complementation can be in a form of finite clauses like 'that-clause and wh-clause'.The'that- clause' is governed by the following three types of verbs in the matrix clause:

1.indicative verbs
2. putative should
3. mandative subjunctive

The indicative verbs introduce a that-clause that expresses certain meanings like (facts, beliefs, doubts, and perception).Suasive verbs can have a that-clause that contains either a 'putative should or mandative subjunctive'. The that-clause with an indicative verb in this case is limited to Br.En (Quirk et al., 1985: 1182). For example:

75) He demands [that he should leave the house].

Downing and Locke (2oo6: 102) call these verbs 'proposals' because they aim at making someone do something. The meaning expressed by the sentential complementation is; therefore, potential which many European languages use the subjunctive mood. There are two forms of subjunctive : present and past subjunctive. The present subjunctive usually has the base form that is used after expressions of demanding or requesting, whereas the past subjunctive usually has the auxiliary 'were' that conveys the meaning of speaker's uncertainty whether the situation will happen or is happening (Greenbaum and Nelson, 2002: 62). Consider the following examples:

76) We demand [that he attend the meeting].
77) The boss insists [that I be at the office on time].
78) We demand [that he not attend the meeting].

In (78), the negative subjunctive is without an operator. There are other verbs like 'wish' and 'suppose', where 'suppose' is used in the imperative, may be followed by a that-clause containing past subjunctive or a verb in the hypothetical past (Quirk et al., 1985: 1183). For example:

79) I wish [that he were here]. (past subjunctive)
80) Suppose [that you died]. (hypothetical past)

The monotransitive complementation can be also introduced by a wh-finite clause. This clause contains an element such as 'why, where, who, how, whether or if ...etc.). The verbs that introduce such type of complementation are like (ask, wonder, tell, think, doubt, explain, forget, hear, mind and so on). Verbs like (know, notice, and say) usually come

with negative wh-clauses (Leech and Svartvik, 1994: 392). The following are illustrative examples:
81) She wondered [why he came alone].
82) We don't know [whether/if they stay or not].

There are verbs that select the wh-interrogative clauses and there are others that select declarative clauses only. For instance, the verb 'inquire' is used only with interrogative clauses whereas the verb 'insist' is used only with declarative clauses (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005:177, 179).
83) We inquired [what they did]. (interrogative clause)
84) He insists [that he is right]. (declarative clause).

Other kinds of a wh-finite clause is a nominal relative clause which is also introduced by a wh-element and indirect exclamative which is introduced by 'how' or ' what' that follows mental verbs such as (believe, and think) or verbs such as (say, and tell) (Downing and Locke, 2006: 107). For example:
85) They believed [what I have told them]. (nominal wh-clause)
86) I couldn't believe [what a big house it was]. (exclamative)
87) She said [how sorry she was].(exclamative)

B. Complementation by Non-Finite Clauses:
A monotransitive complementation can also be in a form of a non-finite clause that consists of to-infinitive clause, -ing clause, and also wh+ infinitive clause. Non-finite clauses are usually embedded within a larger structure. Unlike finite clauses, non-finite clauses, as it is mentioned in section 5, cannot carry tense; therefore, they cannot occur with modal auxiliaries. When a non-finite clause introduced by a to-infinitive contains a subject, the subject should be preceded by the complementizer (for) (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005: 205). For example:

88) He promised [to go with her]. (to-infintive without S)
89) We prefer [for John to drive the car]. (to-infinitve with S)

It must be borne in mind that there is a case distinction between finite and non-finite clauses. All subjects in finite clauses have a nominative case, whereas in non-finite clauses subjects should be in the accusative case (Newson et al., 2006: 38). For example:

90) I think [that he will stay here for two days]. (finite clause)
91) We prefer [for him to be indoors]. (non-finite clause)

Other kinds of non-finite clauses that function as monotransitive complementations are like –ing clause and wh+ infinitive clause. For example:

92) They like [reading novels at night]. (without Subj.)
93) We don't like [them reading at night]. (with Subj.)
94) He learned [how to drive carefully].
95)They asked [where to put their coats].

The infinitive clause also has a semantic implication in that, it implies something that will occur in the future (Geledern, 2010: 150). For example:

96) I tried [to solve the problem].

This future orientation made by the to-complementation makes the infinitive clause differ from other clauses like (-ing clause). Wierzbick (1988: 64) cited in Greeraerts and Cuyckens (2007: 788) illustrates the difference between these two clauses as follows:

97) He tried [to fry the mushrooms].
98) He tried [frying the mushrooms].

In (97) the future orientation is expressed by the to-complement which makes the 'trying' necessarily precedes the 'frying'. Whereas in (98), the -ing complement expresses 'sameness of time'; therefore, the 'trying' and 'frying' seem to be occurring at the same time.

7.3. Ditransitive Complementation:

A. Complementation by Finite Clauses:

Ditransitive complementation can have a form of a finite clause that contains an indirect object (Oi) plus a finite clause introduced by 'that-clause', 'wh-interrrogative clause', and 'wh-nominal clause' (Downing and Locke, 2006: 115). For example:

99) I convinced[her][Oi] [that she is wrong][Od].{St-Comp}.

In (99) above, the whole sentence contains a ditransitive complementation which consists of the first complement 'her' and the second complement 'that-clause' which functions as a direct object. The two compldmentations (ditransitive complementation) function as a

sentential complementation to the whole sentence. Other examples of ditransitive complementation can be in forms of wh-interrogative and wh-nominal clauses:

100) She asked [me] [where I have been].

101) They told [me] [what I wanted to know].

B. Complementation by Non-Finite Clauses:

Ditransitive complementation can be in a form of a non- finite clause introduced by to-infinitive clause and wh+infinitive clause. For example:

102) I told [my mother] [to give me that beautiful dress].

103) They warn [John] [not to be late].

In (102) and (103) above, one may find certain difficulty in deciding whether the noun phrases preceding the non-finite clauses are the subject of that clause or they are the objects of the matrix verbs (Borjars and Burridge, 2010: 151). We can say that both 'my mother' and 'John' are objects of the verbs 'tell' and 'worn' and that the non-finite clauses above are without subject. The evidence is that one can have sentences like 'I [S] told my mother [Od]' and 'they[S] warn John [Od]' but one cannot find sentences like for example '* we prefer for John'since 'John' is not an object but a subject of an obligatory non-finite clause.

Verbs that take that kind of ditransitive complementation are like (advise, allow, ask, beg, invite, tell, warn, urge ...etc.). Semantically, by using these verbs, we are asking someone to do something; therefore, the indirect object should be an animate and the action should be expressed by the non-finite clause (Downing and Locke, 2006: 110). For example:

104) we advise [him][to study hard].

105) They advised [me] [what to wear in the party].

106) Remind [me] [where to meet the boss tomorrow].

7.4 Complex Transitive Complementation:

Complex transitive complementation has the pattern Od+ Co. In finite sentences, the (Co) cannot be a whole finite clause. In other words, the (Co) cannot be expressed by a finite clause introduced by complementizers like (that, wh-finitive, or if). Thus, in finite sentences, the Co can be in a form of an Adj, NP, or Adv. (see Quirk et al., 1985: 1195-1201, and Downing and Locke, 2006: 115). For example:

107) She found [it] [amazing]. (NP+Adj)
108) We consider [him] [our boss]. (NP+NP)
109) He place [the book] [on the shelf]. (NP+Adv)

In contrast, all types of non-finite clauses can function as a complex transitive complementation. The infinitive, -ing participle, and –ed participle clause can be the complement of the direct object. Verbs that take to-infinitive clause as an object complement can be subdivided semantically as follows:

- Factual verbs (declare, announce, report, believe, consider, think ... etc.).. For example:

110) She thought [the visitor] [to be a police officer].

- Intention verbs (intend, mean ...etc.).
- Causative verbs (cause, get, load, elect ...etc.). The to-infinitive clausefollowing these verbs identifies the 'resultant state'.

- Verbs with a modal character (allow, enable, permit, authorize ...etc.). They express concepts like 'permission, enablement, and compulsion'.

(Quirk etal.,1985:1203-4).

111) They elect him to be the president.

Verbs that take bare infinitive complement are like (let, have, make, see...etc.) (Downing and Locke, 2006: 111). For example:

112) Don't let the boy [go outside].

Verbs that take –ing participle clause are like (get, imagine, catch, find, hate, love, and so so) (Leech and Svartvik, 1994: 393). For example:

113) He found the child [crying].

8. Conclusions:

The present study has come to the following results:

1. Sentential complementation in Standard English has been beststudied by consideringits syntactic and semantic features.
2. The sentential complementation has a unique internal structure and external distribution.
3. There are four types of sentential complemetations: copular, monotransitive, ditransitive, and complex transitive complementation which are determined bythe type of the verb used in the main clause.
4. The complementizers that are used to introduce sentential complementation have a great effect on the complements they introduce. First, they indicate whether the following complement is finite on non-finite. Second, they serve to mark the force of the clause.

References

Aarts, B. (2001). English Syntax and Argumentation. New York: Palgrave.

Aresneau, M. (2009). The Infinitive and Gerund Participle As Complements of Verbs of Risk. "M.AThesis University of Laval: Department of Language and Linguistics".

Baker, C. L. (1995). English Syntax. 2nd ed. Cambridge: Massachusetts, MIT press.

Biber, D, Johansson, S. ; Leech, G.; Conrad, S.; Finegan, E. (1999). Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English. London: Longman.

Borjars, K. and Burridge, K. (2010). Introducing English grammar.2nd ed. London: Hodder Education, Hachette UK Company.

Brown, E. K. and Miller, J.E. (1980). Syntax: A Linguistic Introduction to Sentence Structure. Hutchidon and Co. Publishers Ltd.

Bussmann, H. (1996). Routledge Dictionary Of Language and Linguistics. London: Routledge

Cristofaro, S. (2003). Subordination. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dalrymple, M. (2001). Syntax and Semantics: Lexical Functional Grammar. Colombus: Academic Press.

Demarneffe, M. C. and Manning, C. D. (2008). Stanford Typed Dependencies Manual. Stanford Parser.

Downing, A. and Locke, Ph. (2006). English Grammar: Auniversity Course. 2nd ed. London: Routledge, by Taylor and Francis e-library.

Geeraerts, D. And Cuyckens, H. (2007). Edit. The Oxford Handbook of Cognitive Linguistics. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gelderen, E.V. (2010). An Introduction to The Grammar of English. Amsterdam: by John Banjamins Publication Com.

Greenbaum, S. and Nelson, G. (2002). AnIntroduction to English Grammar 2nd ed. London: Longman, Pearson Education Ltd.

Harley, H. (2003). A Linguistics Introduction to English Words. University of Arizona.

Huddleston, R. And Pullum, G.K (2005). A Student's Introduction to English Grammar.Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kallmeyer, L., Lichte, T., Maier, W. (2007). Grammar Formalisims: Linguistic Phenomena.

Kim, J.B and Sells, P (2007). English Syntax: An Introduction. Centre for the Study of Language and Information.

Leech, G. (2006). A Glossary of English Grammar. Edinburgh: Edinburgh

University Press.

Leech, G. and Svartvik, J (1994). A Communicative Grammar of English .2nd ed. London: Longman Group Limited.

Miller, J. (2002). An Introduction to English syntax. London: Edinburgh University Press Ltd.

Muzikant, M. (2007). Comment Clauses and Their Role in Spoken English. "Deploma Thesis: University of Masaryk, Faculty of Education Department of Language of Literature".

Newson, M.; Hordos, M.; Pap, D., Szecenyi, K., Toth, G., Vincze, V. (2006). Basic Syntax with Exercises. Konzorcium: Minden Jog Fenntartval.

Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., Svartvik, J. (1985). A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language. Longman: Longman Group Ltd.

Radford, A. (2004). English Syntax: An Introduction. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Scheibman, J. (2002). Point of View and Grammar. Amsterdam: By John Benjamins B.V.

Tulloch, G. (1990). English Grammar: A Short Guide. Flinders University of South Australia: Flinders Press.